DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 182 412 UD 020 256

AUTHOR Snowden, Petra Elizabeth
TITLE Urban Education: The Relationship Between Schools and the Urban Milieu.
PUB DATE 80
NOTE 16p.

EDRS PRICE MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS Board of Education Role; *City Planning; *City Problems; Curriculum Problems; Economic Disadvantagement; Elementary Secondary Education; Financial Needs; Minority Groups; *Policy Formation; *Public School Systems; Relevance (Education); School Community Relationship; Urban Environment; *Urban Population; *Urban Schools

ABSTRACT

Changes in the metropolitan environment and its population, and the inability of public school systems to respond to these changes, are discussed in this paper. The author states that public school systems are closed systems which are inflexible and resistant to change, and are therefore unable to meet the challenges posed by the massive changes that have taken place in urban areas. Recommendations are made for restructuring the city school system as part of a total urban planning strategy; for reconstructing educational bureaucracies into open systems responsive to metropolitan dynamics; and for the design of new curriculum models that meet the present needs of urban students. (Author/WP)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

JAN 0 4 1980

URBAN EDUCATION: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN SCHOOLS AND THE URBAN MILIEU

Petra Elizabeth Snowden
Old Dominion University
1980

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY
Petra E. Snowden
TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

ED182412

I. Introduction

Discussion of the conditions and problems of urban schools requires attention not only to the schools per se, but also to the total urban setting and to their interactions with other subsystems in that setting.

A single definition of urban education is virtually impossible without alluding to descriptions of the urban scene or the metropolis. The problem of devising an operational definition is compounded by the many sets of interrelated elements and issues of the metropolitan environment which have a direct relationship to and bearing on urban education. Some of the dynamics which need to be incorporated in a satisfactory analysis and definition of urban education are the following:

1) Demography
2) Employment
3) Transportation
4) Housing and living conditions

Before describing these aspects in detail, however, two additional issues must be considered in a definition of urban education.

These are the closed system of urban public education and the structure and content of the urban public school curriculum.

II. Historical Background of Urban Education

Upon review of the history of American cities one cannot fail to notice that what we consider current urban problems or issues have been in existence since the turn of the century. For example, the problem of transportation was acute for urban dwellers as far back as the early 19th Century. Before the Civil War, New York's downtown streets were a jumble of brewery wagons, horse trolleys, hackney coaches, and steam locomotives. By 1900, as depicted in photographs, traffic tie-ups were very much in evidence in the downtown areas of eastern cities. By 1930, the main transit facilities of all major cities were saturated.

Demography, the redistribution of people and jobs has been going on since the early part of this century and is still going on. From the open country and the small towns and cities people moved towards the larger industrial cities where most of the jobs were located. During this process of metropolitan growth the central cities gained in their proportion of working - class residents and blacks, while the suburbs gained in their proportion of middle-class white residents. Thus, the metropolitan area

UD020256

became stratified along economic and racial lines (Havighurst, 1971). As a result children grew up with less contact with children from other types of families than their parents had experienced as children.

In effect, schools became more homogeneous with respect to socio-economic status. From 1920 to 1965, the segregation of children by social class (and by race in northern cities) was increasing. To explore the various Supreme Court decisions which were intended to provide equal educational opportunity with "all deliberate speed" has been discussed elsewhere.

If housing is an aspect of the urban problem, the problem is an old one. In the mid 19th Century every major city of the U.S. had slums. The evidence is provided by prints of 19th Century artists which show that the slums in the center of the cities were surrounded by extensive shanty towns.

If the quality of public services constitutes a measure of our urban difficulties, then the 19th Century was replete with epidemics, generated by polluted water supplies, streets rendered impassable by mud and water.

No one can deny that discontent with our urban setting is being talked about now than at any other period in our history. To understand what the problem is and what alternatives for action may be, we should look at the general process which has been generating change in the urban environment. This entails a discussion of the dynamics of the urban environment as well as the closed educational system and the public school curriculum, its content and structure. Contemporary thoughts and solutions revolving around the topic of urban education which may lead to a clearer, operational definition of the concept are discussed below.

III. Contemporary Thoughts and Solutions

Dynamics of the Metropolitan Environment

Demography refers to the shifting of population within and between the city and its suburbs. The flight to the suburbs by the white collar, better educated, higher income middle class has resulted in a population decentralization. A large proportion of the poor blacks, old people, unemployed and underemployed, less educated and lower income whites and ethnic minorities remained behind in the city, living in either racial and socio-economic enclaves or in heterogeneous fringe neighborhoods. (HEW Urban Education Task Force, 1970, from here on Task Force, 1970) This decentralization of population has resulted in a changing nature of clientele in the city school systems. Blacks constitute a majority of public school students in nine of the fifteen largest American cities. (Meranto, P. 27)

The population density of low-income students has resulted in a school sorting process by race and income rather than a random pupil distribution. The city school systems have been justly criticized for a lack of understanding of the needs of the lower-class students, for maintaining white racist tenured personnel, utilizing irrelevant curricula, allocating fewer resources to central city schools and for a general unwillingness and lack of flexibility in allowing innovative programs to be instituted. (DeCecco, et al., 1972) Peter Schrag poignantly remarks that schools never suggest that the problem lies with the social order rather than with the students or their parents; schools are rarely on the side of reform or change and never acknowledge what many students have already learned. (Schrag, 1967) In contrast, schools occupy a central position in the suburbs and educators are more vulnerable to possible questioning of their professional expertise and are frequently involved in political conflict and controversy. This involvement is due to the rapid suburban population growth and subsequent demands for more educational expenditures. The political or economic differences of the so-called "homogeneous suburbs" and the dispersal of industry from metropolitan areas to outlying suburbs, has given impetus to the planning of magnet schools and educational parks to serve the metropolitan expanding student population, and as a tool to end de facto segregation of the school district.

Unfortunately, as industry moves out to the suburbs the job market for the unskilled city residents decreases. White collar services jobs require training associated with literacy and formal education. These jobs are therefore not accessible to racial and ethnic minorities living in the central city. (Task Force, 1970) Thus, the viscious cycle of unemployment and underemployment continues. The employment problem is further compounded by the lack of public transportation to get to the jobs in the suburbs or even within the metropolitan area. Urban planners have suggested relocation of people to areas where employment is available. (Hummel and Nagle, 1973)

The onus falls on the schools to improve basic elementary education, provide vocational guidance linked to curricular career planning or to arrange for paid employment for every student during part of the school day. The goal is to channel young people into the working world and as Hannah Arendt puts it "bestow a measure of permanence and durability upon the futility of mortal life and the fleeting character of human time." (Hummel and Nagle, P. 50-51) To qualify these persons for jobs schools still have the responsibility to improve the chances of access through basic education and on the job training regardless of Jencks' findings that years of schooling have no relation to income or work performance. (Jencks, 1972) Schools must reexamine how much formal education is actually needed in relation to employment trends and

opportunities. (Task Force, 1970) Also, schools have the responsibility to provide equal opportunity for students to enable them to enter the labor market and to provide the concomitant socialization necessary to become a productive member of the working world society.

Location of schools must be considered in metropolitanization planning of extensive rapid transit systems or transportation grids. Massive intercity transportation networks electronically controlled are not futuristic solutions but have been in operation in Europe for years. Technology applied to developing a metropolitan transportation web may well be the mechanism for encouraging racial and ethnic interdependence and integration for the benefit of both suburban and inner city residents.

Resulting largely from the problems associated with low levels of employment and lack of adequate public transportation is another whole set of problems associated with the elements of housing and living conditions. The 1967 Kerner Commission large city survey findings are still applicable today. For example, blacks pay higher rent and receive less for their money, housing conditions are overcrowded, inadequate and substandard, poverty and/or discrimination forces non-whites into ghetto housing, Federal building programs have done little to alleviate the housing problems for low income families. (Task Force, 1970, P. 28)

The family style and quality of living engendered by substandard housing conditions has a direct effect on central city children in the school or outside. Clark, Kozol, Schrag, Herndon, Rosenthal and other writers have written extensively on the impoverished urban environment that characterizes the ghetto child. Urban Renewal, Model City Plans, Low Income Housing Projects are only band-aid solutions to the physical decay and aging of urban buildings and to the expansion of slums and blight as real estate profiteers capitalize on the helplessness of the poor. Once again, the onus of responsibility falls on the urban schools to educate the disadvantaged in light of debilitating environmental conditions. Unless schools overcome their own handicaps such as racism, incompetence, irrelevant curriculum and lack of resources the vicious cycle of poverty, unemployment and ignorance will continue to chain the ghetto child.

A corollary problem of housing, employment, transportation and racial isolation is the lack of financial resources for city schools. The financial crisis is due to

1) the weak fiscal base upon which schools rely for support - low family income; economic activity moving to the suburbs,
2) lower property evaluation, which is the prime source of educational revenues and cost, and
3) municipal overburden at the expense of the education dollar.

Public services such as welfare, traffic, police and public safety cost more in the city, thus, the education part of the public service dollar becomes smaller in the city than in the suburbs. Meranto points to the irony as both urbanites and city dwellers benefit from these services which central cities are pressed to support by a shrinking tax base. (Meranto, 1970) Educational systems must compete for state aid in the same labor market. Yet suburbs have a higher income and receive more state aid despite the fact that per pupil expenditures are higher in the city due to special education services, higher cost of wages, site acquisitions, employee retirement, general rise in materials and instructional costs and lack of public support in tax measures and bonds. Thus, state aid formulas which historically have been based on compensating poor rural areas, many of which have since grown into upper income suburbs, must be subject to careful scrutiny and revision. Lower courts have questioned the wealth of property valuation state aid formulas which States have used as a dependent variable to determine the amount of money spent per student. (Serrano v. Priest, 96 California Reporter 601, 1971) Meranto suggests that a need factor be included in the formula to equalize educational opportunity as well as income rather than property valuation. The income disparities could also be offset by outright Federal support using the equalization allocation models or flat grants model. (Johns et. al., 1972)

The State Incentive Grant Model which rewards local effort for establishing various foundation program levels is used in Wisconsin. However, inequality of educational opportunity based on financial resources remains a fact for the city school districts and their students. The voucher system advocated by Friedman et. al. would give parents chits or a script worth a certain amount of money to 'spend' for their children's education at any public or private school. This proposal has raised a great deal of discussion over the issues of diversity and choice, procedures for preventing discrimination and a possible lottery admissions system to insure equal access to desirable schools. The NEA and AFT lobbies strongly oppose the voucher system on the grounds that it is more difficult to bargain with individual schools than with a centralized school district. Furthermore, MaryJo Bane claims that their main objections seem to be ideological and that the voucher system would destroy the public schools. (HER, 1971, P. 114)

The Closed System

The consequences of the dynamics of metropolitanization necessitate either a revolution, an overthrow of the political power structure or a fundamental restructuring of the educational system. (Hurwitz and Maidment, 1970) Restructuring of the city school system must be part of a total urban planning strategy that involves the simultaneous revitalization and reform of transportation, housing and the economics of the subcommittees throughout the city and still retain the integrity of the larger social systems.

For the present purpose, only the nature of the closed decision-making urban education system operating as one of the many inter-dependent subsystems will be described. The bureaucratic tendencies in schools are evidenced by the distribution of organizational tasks, the reward-tenure merit system, the definite hierarchical structure, the formal system of rules and regulations, the impersonal treatment of clients and the standardized output. The disadvantages of the bureaucratic framework are its resistance to change, lack of flexibility and coordination and perpetuation of the status quo, accountibility is too far removed from the clients, the loyality to the clients if frequently incompatible with loyality to the organization, raw material is not standardized and the inability of the bureaucratic structure to adapt to a professional authority which is based on expertise rather than efficiency. In order to alleviate these and other dysfunctions of the educational bureaucracy the pattern of functional specialization and participation in policy and decision-making as suggested by Meranto must be carefully scrutinized. (1970) The material which follows illustrates the assumption that the urban education function has been in a relatively closed decision-making system, separated from other sub-systems in the city as well as from the pluralistic metropolitan community as a whole. Lack of communication, collaboration and coordination chacterizes much of the policy and decision-making process on the state and local level.

The ideology of nonpartisanship has historically pervaded public school decision-making. The rationale for local control and autonomy is that professional educators must not become involved in the corrupt political machinery of state or big-city politics. (Cremin, 1964) Ironically, these same professionals as state education board members or as state superintendents determine budget needs, levy taxes, allocate public resources and set minimum standards and certification requirements for the school districts throughout the state. Thus the spirit of non-partisanship is perpetuated by the state education representatives and school district administrators. Although this stance isolates the educational system from much of the adverse political community power and pressure it lacks at the same time an open attitude and receptivity to the demands of civil rights movements to end de facto segregation in the school district or to participate in metropolitan planning of educational parks or magnet schools. As Meranto writes,

> "The rural backgrounds of many state schoolmen, combined with the fact that city school systems are separated from the political system of the city and thus from city representatives in the legislature puts city schoolmen at a disadvantage when they attempt to have their needs met at the state level." (P. 92)

The state has delegated the responsibility of governing the schools to the local Boards of Education who in turn select Superintendents. The nomination of School Board members includes petitions, announcements, primary elections, caucus, school meetings and conventions. The elections are non-partisan and separate from political elections. The social make-up of the Board members can be characterized as representative of the white, middle-class, having an above average formal education in business, management and professional occupations and frequently espousing a conservative point of view. (McCarty and Ramsey, 1971) Thus, the representation of minority groups lags behind the minority group proportion of the city school population. Also, the politically appointed members exhibit an unwillingness and inability to tolerate conflict such as racial issues, whereas the members of the white power structure and business class are the ones most willing to break with traditional values and to innovate programs to meet the demands of the minorities. (Crain, 1969) Crain's studies have shown that a liberal point of view is exhibited by the business and management Board members and a willingness to experiment with curriculum development. Unfortunately, they do not concern themselves with content and thus the liberal point of view is really a weakness. McCartey and Ramsey have found that the community power structure influences the decision-making process and make-up of the Board and the Superintendent. Their findings in the fifty-one communities surveyed are summarized as follows:

COMMUNITY POWER STRUCTURE	SCHOOL BOARD	ROLE OF THE SUPERINTENDENT
Dominated	Dominated	Functionary
Factional	Factional	Political strategist
Pluralistic	Status congruent	Professional advisor
Inert	Sanctioning	Decision-maker (P. 22)

In order to make the School Board more representative of the city population, political parties ought to run slates of candidates, and/or an urban coalition of big business, labor, city administration, university, foundations and community service agencies should nominate and fund candidates. Also, more direct communication between the School Board and the parents is needed. Presently, policy statements on changes or innovations are given to the news media for publication or interested parties can go to the public library and read the volumes of School Board minutes, attend School Board meetings or call Central Office. An alternative as a public forum or a school district newsletter sent out to parents ought to give them information if the students can read, have learned an

employable skill, and are ready for college, what the School Board's stance on national issues is such as Federal Aid, the voucher system, de facto segregation, decentralization, open classrooms, nongrading and all the concommitant elements of metropolitanization.

The Superintendent as the professional expert recommends preferred policy alternatives to the Board and administers the policy. If there is conflict between the Board and the Superintendent it is rarely publicized so as not to disrupt the 'serenity' of the educational process and threaten public confidence in the schools which in turn might endanger financial support. The Superintendent must take a stance on controversial issues such as race, poverty, unemployment and the interrelationship between the schools and public agencies now representing minorities and give his recommendations to the Board for possible adoption. Crain found that frequently school Superintendents' response to the demand for integration was characterized by "extreme defensiveness about the schools, coupled with an intolerance of 'lay' criticism." (P. 115-124) A politically active Superintendent like Mark Shedd of Philadelphia, who has sought to resolve desegregation within his school district, was ousted by the Board and is now teaching at Harvard. Nevertheless, Superintendents must build a political base inside and outside the school system and legitimize programs ahead of time to eliminate the possible closed decision-making process of the Board. "Without a personal political base the Superintendent has to seek safety in blandness or face constant job insecurity." (McCarty and Ramsey, 1971, P. 222) He has to know who the influentials in the school district are, what values motivate them, the power resources as well as the interaction patterns. Professional expertise must have political support of citizens' committees made up of community influentials who have a stake in the welfare of the total metropolitan community.

In the present school system too much planning and decision-making is done from the top. One suggestion is to transform the authority structure at the top and develop an effective managerial core of principals and teachers. (Janowitz, 1971) Drucker also advocates reorganization giving everyone in the system more responsibility based on the concept of acquiring total knowledge and a balance of tasks. (Hurwitz and Maidment, 1970) Unfortunately, teacher contract demands reflect maintaining the status quo rather than a concern with educational change via policy decision-making, participation and reorganization of tasks. Whether teachers will work with the community to break down the closed decision system or instead align with the establishment to protect the status quo is still undecided.

The principal frequently is the victim of the closed decision-making process of the urban school. She or he organizes, allocates and stimulates action: As a counselor of students, supervisor of instructional programs, organizer of schedules, school disciplinarian, professional leader, supervisor of custodial and food service employees, manager of school facilities, liaison between teachers and Superintendent and public relations 'man'. She or he is caught between the bureaucratic organizational demand and the needs of the community and the needs of the students. Ironically, this administrator as a victim of the closed system is also in a prime position to open the decision-making process, as for example, coordinate and relate new educational methods and materials in curriculum design appropriate for the particular character of students and teachers, in the building, and arrange for inservice staff development geared to the needs of the student body during the school day. The latter should involve paraprofessionals, students, parents, staff consultant or expert on the topics to be discussed, analyzed and evaluated. The principal must be a vigorous entrepeneur in order to mobilize additional resources both within the system and the city at large. Central Office and the local schools must cooperate in opening up the closed decision-making process to prevent its perpetuation and reinforcement. The HEW Task Force Master Plan, the National Institute of Education, and a Central Planning Board (Cerych, 1972) as a base for social, pedagogical and economic research and inquiry all point to an increased participation of the Federal government in the decision-making process of urban education.

Communication, participation, clearer role definitions, reconstruction of the organization, opening the system to allow accountability to function and recognition of professional expertise may alleviate some of the bureaucratic dysfunctions of the present urban education system. However, a knowledge of the environment in which education system operates, coupled with the elimination of structural dysfunctions of that system must include innovative long-range planning of curriculum content. One of the major responsibilities of a professional educator is to forecast broad, long range educational needs and develop responsive programs.

Urban Public School - Content and Structure

The traditional curriculum design is largely inappropriate for the culturally diverse student body in our city schools for the following reasons: emphasis on tracking, fragmatized and scattered textbook centered content, compulsory attendance, grading, equating information with knowledge, uniform 'core' content and expectations, inflexible space allocations, equal time and resource allocations for 'major' subjects and stress on common teaching and learning

style. The failure of the schools in light of these traditional curriculum practices and expectations has been extensively documented. (HEW Task Force on Urban Education, the Coleman Report, the Jencks' Inequality, Peter Schrag, John Goodlad, Fantini and Weinstein.) Numerous compensatory, remedial and alternative programs have been proposed to remedy the failure. Head Start and Upward Bound may provide special education and services for the "culturally disadvantaged," but essentially they imply a certain degree of segregation, condescension and patronizing. Further, compensatory programs shift the responsibility from the school to the child and family and thus eliminate any concern for a general upgrading of the schools and integration. In effect, "Tracking segregates. Remedial reading segregates. Special schools segregate. (Schrag, p. 170)

John Goodlad writes that Curriculum design and content segregates and stereotypes students especially as schools reinforce the socio-economic environmental distortions and emphasize a white, middle-class point of view. His solution is to let each student work at his/her optimal level of readiness in a non-graded school with team teaching. (Goodlad, 1966) Schrag suggests that schools be magnet centers of community interest and activity and should include the entire city as a resource or campus. (Schrag, 1970)

The search for solutions and alternatives to the traditional curriculum continues. Careful scrutiny of criteria for evaluating alternatives is basic to this search before implementation of new methods can begin. Some of the criteria questions one might pose to curriculum design advocates of open access, the city as a classroom, affect and aggregate socialization are:

1) Will students learn basic skills such as reading, writing and oral expression necessary for survival in an increasingly technological society with conflicting values?
2) Will each student be able to develop his or her particular talents and interests utilizing the student's life experiences and relevant subject matter?
3) Will students get fundamental work-study training in career-oriented subjects?
4) Will students be socialized that they will be able to function and deal with such specific urban problems as health, combating noise and congestion, controlling the environment in order to maintain clean air and water supplies, understanding and helping to fight the problems of crime, alcoholism, drug addiction and child abuse?
5) Will students be prepared toward self-determination, self-respect and collaboration in a pluralistic society in order to meet the future's requirements for change and adaptation?

These same criteria should determine the goals and objectives of the curriculum design. The Aggregation Model has socialization and resocialization of values and motives as a major goal. Affective considerations in terms of values and motives as a major goal. Affective considerations in terms of fitting the curriculum to the students'

personality and emphasis on professional human perspectives rather than techniques as well as group cooperation instead of competition are stressed. Further, the subject matter is restructured so that the fundamental intellectual and cognitive development of each student is considered. (Janowitz, 1969) For this design Piaget's learning theories help determine what should be taught at what age to serve the individual and social need of the child. (Piaget, 1968) Also the environment of the student must be considered. This may require knowledge of family ghetto life, psychological factors of poverty, black referents and perspectives. Knowledge of family ghetto life as basic curriculum content can provide the link between the resocialization goals of the school and the ghetto values and motives of the student. Further, the desgin should reflect the school's responsibility for all students to enter the labor market. Paid work-study programs utilizing the city's resources provide a further link between the school and the working world.

The Open Access Model is an attempt to eliminate the fragmentation of subject matter by creating three clusters of content which include three types of knowledge and learning processes - fact, contested truth and open exploration. These content clusters are related to arts and science majors which a student might choose in college. They provide multiple entry points, self-directed in-depth learning and guidelines for study. For Wilson, the social significance of open access is that 1) a number of comfortable places guarantee success for individuals irrespective of past failures or negative environmental influences, 2) learning is more reflective, cooperative and scholarly and 3) the ultimate responsibility for learning is with the learner. (Wilson, 1972, p. 19-21)

Although Wilson claims to have designed a curriculum providing access for all students, he consistently ignores the entry point dilemma facing the minority student. There are no provisions in this model for providing access for the foreign born, black or academically disenchanted. He writes that the non-academic student has been denied access to the 'creative aspects of any discipline', to the 'best teachers' and 'the geniune respect' for the 'technical and vocational courses' - (p.26) but these attributes seem to be based on white, middle-class standards of what is 'respect' and 'best.'

In the Curriculum of Affect Model emphasis is on meaningful content and teaching style for all children. (Weinstein & Fantini, 1970) For example, teaching methods are matched to children's learning styles, relevant content is based on the urban child's experience, feelings and concerns about himself. Weinstein and Fantini write:

> "relevance is that which connects the affective, or feeling, aspects and the cognitive, or conceptualizing, aspects of learning... a better linkage between the affective domain - the learner's concerns - and the practices of the school would reduce the discrepancy between learning and behavior." (p.23)

Thus, affective learning is emphasized rather than providing direct linkages to the working world and future learning orientation.

Human Relations seem to pervade the current curriculum design literature. Some of these goals and values are difficult to operationalize and measure. Perhaps that is the reason why they are so rarely present in the urban school and yet desparately needed. Examples of these personal value-based goals are: individual dignity and self-respect, self-actualization and self-fulfilment, personalization, human worth of pupils, living-learning-working, realistic problem solving, success for everyone, curiosity, rewards concerned with basic needs and self-discovery.

"In the midst of our culture stands the city. In the midst of the city stands the school." (Schrag, p. 3) To use the city as a classroom or campus and the school as a community center are not only refreshing alternatives but realistic solutions to the current isolation of suburban and city students from each other and from the larger metropolitan society. Schrag suggests, have each child attend a different school one, two or three days a week each with its own special services and facilities, make the school cafeteria attractive and available for parents and the general community for lunch with the children, locate branch libraries in the schools, subsidize artists to practice their art in the school building, build attractive workshops and special craftsmen boutiques right into new schools, make schools into community centers offering night classes, sponsoring community theater, jazz concerts and family reading groups. (Schrag, p. 177-178) The city then serves not only as a classroom but also as a resource for curriculum content and learning. In lieu of the occasional field trips students could be channeled into rotating work-study situations at the courthouse, museum, telephone company, at hospitals, day-care centers and community service agencies.

However, any alternative curriculum design based on the evaluation criteria previously mentioned can only be effected by an open school system sensitive to the dynamics of metropolitan.

IV. Summary and Recommendations

Summary

An appropriate definition of urban education is virtually impossible due to the many complex educational problems which face the urban school systems. Many of the problems must be considered by relating them to population shifts, transportation, employment, housing and living conditions. These are only a few of the sets of interrelated elements of the metropolitan environment which have a direct relationship to and bearing on urban education.

The problems that confront urban education are further compounded by a closed decision-making system. Educators and administrators frequently adhere to the status quo rather than foster and share awareness, understanding and knowledge of man's position in a rapidly changing society. Another critical issue in urban education, perhaps more crucial as it effects the children directly, is the curriculum content and structure. The traditional curriculum design is largely inappropriate for the culturally diverse student body in our city schools.

It is not only the stark reality of dwindling financial resources but also the humane concern for effective performance standards for all children which demand increased perception and awareness of socio-economic barriers by the total citizenry.

Finally, to return to the initial problem - Urban Education. What is it? From a social systems point of view urban education is simply a process occurring within a subsystem of a larger environment, namely the metropolis. From an urban planning frame of reference, urban education encompasses a certain number of students within particular geographic entities. However, a short and comprehensive definition of urban education is virtually impossible to arrive at. Only by analyzing and describing in detail all the facets of urban education can we hope to attain a more lucid understanding and empathetic insight into such an elusive concept.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Bane, Mary Jo. "On Tuition Vouchers: An Essay Review." Education and the Legal Structure. Reprint Series No. 6. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Educational Review, 1971, pp. 113-121.

Cerych, Ladislav. A Global Approach to Higher Education. Occational Paper No. 3. New York: International Council for Educational Development, April, 1972.

Crain, Robert L. The Politics of School Desegregation; Comparative Case Studies of Community Structure and Policy-Making. Garden City, N. Y.: Anchor Books of Doubleday & Company, Inc., 1968.

Cremin, Lawrence A. The Transormation of the School; Progressivism in American Education, 1976-1957. New York: Vintage Books of Random House, 1961.

De Cecco, John P., ed. The Regeneration of the School; Readings in Educational Psychology, Sociology, and Politics. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1972.

Goodlad, John I. School, Curriculum, and the Individual. Waltham, Mass.: Blaisdell Publishing Company of Ginn and Company, 1966.

Havighurst, Robert J. and Levine, Daniel U. Education in Metropolitan Areas, 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971.

Hummel, Raymond C. and Nagel, John M. Urban Education in America; Problems and Prospects. New York: Oxford University Press, 1973.

Hurwitz, Emanuel, Jr., and Maidment, Robert, eds. Criticism, Conflict, and Change; Readings in American Education. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company, 1970.

Janowitz, Morris. Institution Building in Urban Education. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1969.

Jencks, Christopher, et al. Inequality; a Reassessment of the Effect of Family and Schooling in America. New York: Harper Colophon Books of Harper & Row, Publishers, 1972.

Johns, Roe L., Alexander, Kern and Jordan, Forbis, eds. Financing Education. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill and Company, Inc., 1972.

McCarty, Donald J. and Ramsey, Charles E. The School Managers; Power and Conflict in American Public Education. Westport, Conn.: Greenwood Publishing Company, 1971.

Meranto, Philip J. School Politics in the Metropolis. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1970.

Mumford, Lewis. The City in History; Its Origins, Its Transformations, and its Prospects. New York: Harcourt, Barce and World, Inc., 1961.

Piaget, Jean. Six Psychological Studies. Translated by Anita Tenzer. New York: Vintage Books of Random House, 1967.

Schrag, Peter. Village School Downtown; Boston Schools, Boston Politics. Boston: Beacon Press, 1967.

Serrano V. Priest, 96 California Reporter 601. 1971.

U. S., Commission on Civil Rights. Education Parks; Appraisals of Plans to Improve Educational Quality and Desegregate the Schools. Clearinghouse Publication No. 9. John A Hannah, Chairman. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, October, 1967.

U. S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Task Force on Urban Education, final report. Urban School Crisis; The Problem and Solutions. January 5, 1970.

Weinstein, Gerald and Fantini, Mario D., eds. Toward Humanistic Education; A Curriculum of Affect. New York: Praeger Publishers for the Ford Foundation, 1970.

Wilson, L. Craig. The Open Acess Curriculum. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1971.